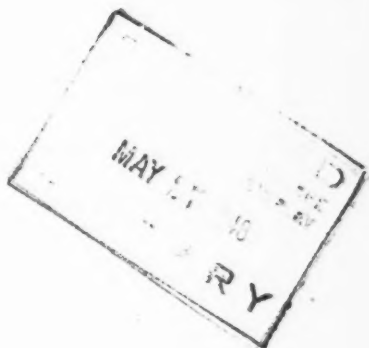


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R. H. ECKELBERRY . . . . . *Editor*

J. MACLATCHY . . . . . *Assistant Editor*

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# Educational Research Bulletin

APRIL 14, 1948

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## Certain Administrative Phases of Student Teaching

By PAUL R. GRIM

**I**N JANUARY, 1947, the College of Education at the University of Minnesota made a questionnaire study of certain administrative phases of student teaching in selected state colleges and universities. Forty-nine institutions representing every section of the country responded. The data were secured in order to answer certain questions and to solve certain issues relating to student teaching at the University of Minnesota.

For the school year 1946-47, these institutions were providing student teaching on the elementary-school level for an average number of 50 individuals. The range was from one to 300 student teachers. On the secondary-school level the mean number doing student teaching was 114, with a range from 10 to 475.

The types of schools in which student teaching was being done and the number of institutions using each type of opportunity are given in the following summary:

Types of Schools	Number of Institutions
Campus laboratory school only	1
Off-campus co-operative laboratory school only	7
Off-campus schools other than co-operative laboratory schools only	10
Combination of campus laboratory school and off-campus public schools	9
Combination of off-campus laboratory school and other public schools	11
Combination of campus laboratory school, off-campus laboratory school, and other public schools	9
Combination of campus laboratory and off-campus laboratory schools	2
Total	49

In only one institution was all student teaching limited to a campus laboratory school. Seven institutions used off-campus co-operative laboratory schools only (city schools operated under the joint supervision of the training institution and the city). The combination of the off-campus laboratory school

with other public schools was found most frequently. The campus laboratory school was often used in conjunction with the off-campus laboratory school and other public schools. Eighteen of the reporting institutions used only one type of school; thirty-one utilized various combinations of the different types of schools for their student-teaching program.

TABLE I  
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE USES MADE BY TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS OF THE FACILITIES OF CAMPUS AND OF CO-OPERATIVE LABORATORY SCHOOLS IN TRAINING TEACHERS FOR ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

	CAMPUS LABORATORY SCHOOLS		CO-OPERATIVE LABORATORY SCHOOLS	
	Elementary*	Secondary†	Elementary*	Secondary†
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Experimentation and research . .	57	67	17	14
Demonstration . . . . .	62	76	41	28
Observation . . . . .	71	81	55	59
Student teaching . . . . .	67	91	59	72
Other uses . . . . .	24	24	14	10

\* Uses reported by 21 teacher-training institutions.

† Uses reported by 29 teacher-training institutions.

**L**ABORATORY schools, on and off campus, were used for many different purposes in teacher education, according to the percentage distribution summarized in Table I. Student teaching generally ranked as the highest function for both types of laboratory schools, being exceeded only slightly by observation functions on the elementary-school level among campus laboratory schools. Observation ranked second in both campus and off-campus schools, on both elementary- and secondary-school levels. Campus laboratory schools were used widely on both levels for demonstration purposes. The co-operative laboratory school also served 41 per cent of the institutions for demonstration on the elementary-school level, but only 28 per cent were using it similarly for training secondary-school teachers. Campus laboratory schools were used by more than half the institutions for experimentation and research, while off-campus laboratory schools were not utilized widely for these purposes. Campus schools were used considerably more than off-campus laboratory schools for such general purposes as child study, clinics, in-service training, and graduate research.

THE figures in Table II show that most student teaching on the elementary-school level was carried out in laboratory schools, either on or off the institutional campus. Five institutions confined all their elementary-school student teaching to their campus laboratory schools. Ten used only co-operative off-campus laboratory schools in the student-teaching program for elementary-school teachers. Only 13 of the 31 institutions made any use of city or private schools, other than those operated on a co-operative laboratory basis.

Student teaching for prospective secondary-school teachers,

TABLE II  
TYPES OF SCHOOLS USED BY TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS AND  
AMOUNT OF STUDENT TEACHING DONE IN EACH

TYPES OF SCHOOLS USED	EXTENT TO WHICH USED FOR STUDENT TEACHING			
	100 Per Cent	99-50 Per Cent	49-25 Per Cent	24-0 Per Cent
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
In Training Elementary-School Teachers*				
Campus laboratory school.....	5	7	1	1
Co-operative laboratory school.....	10	1	4	3
Private and public city schools.....	2	3	0	2
Schools outside the city.....	2	1	0	3
In Training Secondary-School Teachers†				
Campus laboratory schools.....	4	11	2	2
Co-operative laboratory school.....	10	7	3	4
Private and public city schools.....	1	5	4	11
Schools outside the city.....	4	7	1	13

\* Reported by 31 institutions training elementary-school teachers.

† Reported by 48 institutions training secondary-school teachers.

as shown by figures in the lower part of Table II, was most frequently provided in schools other than those termed laboratory schools. Both campus and co-operative laboratory schools were widely used, however. Ten of the 24 institutions, for example, using co-operative laboratory schools, secure training facilities for all their student teachers. Public and private city schools and schools outside the city, although widely used, provided only a relatively small amount of the student teaching. It is interesting to note, however, that over half of the reporting institutions make some use of schools outside the city in which the teacher-training institution is located.

**T**WENTY-SIX of the 34 institutions using city public-school systems for student teaching reported that supervision was provided by a combination of the services of public-school teachers and those of the training institution. The amount of supervision provided by each could not be determined. The room teacher was responsible for 82 per cent of the supervision provided by the public-school systems. Fifty-three per cent of the institutions reported that they had meetings with their public-school supervisors of student teaching. These meetings ranged in number from one to four times a quarter or semester up to ten times a year. Few institutions pay city supervisors to attend these meetings.

In only 9 of the 29 institutions using off-campus laboratory schools did the principal hold academic rank. The ranks listed were those of instructor, lecturer, consultant, assistant professor, and associate professor. Approximately half of the teacher-training institutions elected city-employed teachers to the institutional staff for their supervisory duties. When rank was given to these teachers, it was usually that of instructor or assistant critic teacher.

Approximately half of the institutions using city schools for student teaching had one over-all policy for the remuneration of all supervising teachers. Fifty-three per cent of the off-campus teachers were paid for their supervision. When this service was rendered by city supervisors, however, only about 12 per cent were paid by the institutions for their activities. In all cases when a stipend was paid, it was a flat amount, but could increase with experience and training. The range of pay for supervising teachers varied widely, as the following figures indicate: from \$25 to \$65 a month, from \$10 to \$75 a quarter, from \$25 to \$60 a semester, from \$100 to \$1,400 a year, and \$5 per credit-hour. Infrequently, other forms of remuneration were offered; these were, for the most part, the granting of tuition to the institutions. Six of the 39 teacher-training institutions utilizing public-school facilities paid school boards directly for these services, although two made only partial payments.

Approximately 40 per cent of the principals of co-operative laboratory schools (off-campus) received a part of their salary from the higher institutions. The range of such payments was up to 95 per cent of the salary, but the median was less than

10 per cent. This indicates that, in general, the principal receives only a relatively small remuneration from the teacher-training institution.

A considerable number of the reporting teacher-training institutions indicated that they were planning to revise the administrative basis of their student-teaching program. None reported that it planned to abandon its campus laboratory school. Changes seemed generally to be pointing toward closer co-operation with city schools, more in-service training of supervisors, more adequate supervision, and higher remuneration for public-school supervisors. These trends, together with more efficient use of laboratory-school facilities on and off campus, should further improve the student-teaching programs of state-supported teacher-training institutions.

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1 1 1

**T**HE University of Southern California is offering its third summer workshop in Intercultural Education June 21-July 30. The program will provide guidance and practice in making active plans for improving intergroup relations in schools and communities; opportunities to develop needed materials; contacts with community leaders in health, housing, education, police protection, and recreation, and in minority groups, religious groups, and other organizations and agencies; contacts with consultants in sociology, psychology, anthropology, social work, and education.

The staff includes Franklin Frazier, Sybil Richardson, and Jane Hood. Jack Stone, Ruth Tuck, Marie Hughes, Glen Lukens, and Beatrice Krone will serve as resource lecturers and consultants. Early application will make it possible for the staff to be of maximum service to the Workshop members.

Address applications to Mrs. Jane Hood, University of Southern California, Los Angeles 7, California.

# Working Knowledge Needed by the High-School Teacher

By HAROLD ALBERTY

**T**HIS study is an attempt to discover the working knowledge (including attitudes, understandings, and skills) which every high-school teacher should possess and utilize in order to carry on his work effectively. It was instigated by the writer as one aspect of a study proposed by the National Society of College Teachers of Education in 1947 for the purpose of discovering the "working knowledge" which teachers should possess in the fields of professional activity. This accounts for the fact that the present investigation is limited to the area of instruction which was interpreted to mean: the curriculum, its development, organization, and relationship to the total school program; planning, guiding, and evaluating learning activities in the classroom; and extra-class instructional activities and responsibilities.

The generalizations which make up the check list were formulated upon the basis of previous studies in the field and an analysis of some of the newer books in secondary education, supplemented by the writer's judgment and that of a small group of his graduate students. The writer presented the check list at the annual meeting of the Association in 1947 and was encouraged by the response of the audience to try it out with groups of teachers.

Superintendent Louis J. Schmerber volunteered to ask the teachers of the four high schools of Paterson, New Jersey, to rank the items in the check list. The ratings by high-school teachers given in Table I were supplied by him. Approximately two hundred high-school teachers were included in this group.

In order to determine the relationship between the ratings of high-school teachers and those of persons engaged directly in teacher education, the writer obtained the ratings of 21 colleagues at Ohio State University. This group included persons who either were directly concerned with preparing high-school teachers or were familiar with the problems of secondary-school teaching. The opinions of this group, however, do not necessarily represent the thinking of the Department or College of Education.



The following instructions accompanied the check list:

- I. Read the entire list carefully.
- II. Rate each generalization in accordance with the following scale:
  - 0 means that the item is of *no* value and should be omitted.
  - 1 means that the item is of *some* value, but not necessary.
  - 2 means that the item is of *considerable* value and probably should be included.
  - 3 means that the item is *very* valuable and should be included.
  - 4 means that the item is of the *highest* value and almost indispensable to the teacher.

EXAMPLE:

- [2] 6. How to organize learning activities so as to provide for differences among students.

The item marked in this manner means that you regard it to be of *considerable* value, and that it probably should be included in a list of important generalizations dealing with professional competencies.

- III. When you have finished rating the various items, add any new items in the area of instruction which you think are important in effective teaching.

Table I gives for each generalization the complete distribution of ratings, the weighted average, and the percentage which the number of 3 and 4 ratings is of the total number of ratings. This calculation was thought to be of value, because a rating of 3 or 4 indicates that the generalization is regarded as having very great importance.

IT is recognized that it is hazardous to draw even tentative conclusions from the data presented, for the following reasons: First, the relatively small sampling of college teachers of education may have distorted the results, and the high-school group may not have been typical. Second, there were undoubtedly differing interpretations of the meaning of the generalizations. Third, the character of the data was such as to preclude precise statistical treatment.

The following statements are therefore to be regarded as highly tentative and as indicating possible trends in thinking rather than as well-supported conclusions.

First, college teachers of education and experienced high-school teachers seem to be in general agreement on the "working knowledge" which the high-school teacher should possess. There is a correlation of .79 between the average ratings of the high-school teachers and the college teachers, and of .77 between the percentage ratings of the two groups.

TABLE I  
RATINGS GIVEN BY COLLEGE AND HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS TO GENERALIZATIONS INCLUDED IN THE CHECK LIST ITEMIZING THE WORKING KNOWLEDGE WHICH EXPERIENCED HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS SHOULD POSSESS

GENERALIZATIONS	PERSONS RATING		RATING DISTRIBUTION				AVERAGE RATING	PER CENT*	
	Position	Number	0	1	2	3			4
A. The Curriculum, its development, organization, and relationship to the total program of the school: 1. A democratic philosophy of education, and how to carry it out in practice, with special reference to the teacher's field or fields of specialization.	College . . . . .	21	0	0	1	3	17	3.8	95
	High School . . . . .	123	2	2	12	29	78	3.4	87
	College . . . . .	21	0	1	7	9	4	2.8	62
	High School . . . . .	196	1	25	65	78	27	3.1	54
2. Competing philosophies of secondary education and the implications of each for the curriculum.	College . . . . .	21	0	1	6	10	4	2.8	67
	High School . . . . .	199	2	17	72	68	40	2.7	54
3. All of the fields of knowledge and areas of activity in the school and their general contributions to the purposes of the school. (Note: a general rather than a detailed knowledge).	College . . . . .	21	1	2	9	8	1	2.3	44
	High School . . . . .	199	2	25	63	74	37	2.6	56
4. The elementary, collegiate, and technical curriculums and the ways of articulating them with the high-school curriculum. (Note: a general rather than a detailed knowledge).	College . . . . .	21	0	0	2	19	3	3.9	100
	High School . . . . .	201	0	5	14	33	149	3.6	91
5. The unique function of his field or fields of specialization in contributing to the purposes of the school.	College . . . . .	21	0	0	2	6	13	3.5	90
	High School . . . . .	195	1	9	29	74	82	3.2	80
6. The current social-economic-political scene and its impingement on the life of the adolescent, the curriculum, and the school.	College . . . . .	21	0	0	6	8	7	3.0	71
	High School . . . . .	201	3	18	30	85	65	2.9	75
7. How to utilize the cultural heritage in interpreting present-day events and movements as they influence the curriculum.	College . . . . .	21	1	2	6	7	5	2.6	60
	High School . . . . .	199	2	16	53	83	45	2.8	64
8. The crucial issues in the curriculum field and at least a tentative resolution of them in terms of a basic philosophy of education.	College . . . . .	21	0	0	8	10	3	2.8	62
	High School . . . . .	189	1	11	65	80	32	2.7	59
9. The various types of curriculum (for example, subject-centered, experience-centered, broad fields, core) and the advantages and disadvantages of each.	College . . . . .	21	0	4	7	7	3	2.4	50
	High School . . . . .	199	2	19	57	76	45	2.8	61
10. The leading techniques of curriculum development (for example, activity analysis, social functions, adolescent needs) and how to evaluate each of them in terms of the teacher's philosophy of education.	College . . . . .	21	0	2	10	5	4	2.5	43
	High School . . . . .	201	0	31	84	65	21	2.4	43
11. The experimental programs of the leading schools and their implications for the curriculum.									

\* Percentage which the two highest ratings (3 and 4) are of all the ratings given the generalization by members of each group.

TABLE I [Continued]

GENERALIZATIONS	PERSONS RATING		RATING DISTRIBUTION				AVERAGE RATING	PER CENT*	
	Position	Number	0	1	2	3			4
12. The contributions of the leaders in the field and how they may be utilized in improving the curriculum and classroom procedures.	College . . . . .	19	0	2	12	5	0	2.1	26
	High School . . . . .	193	2	8	46	86	51	2.9	71
13. The social, economic, political, and religious forces of the community and how they influence the life of the student, the curriculum, and the school.	College . . . . .	21	0	0	2	7	12	3.5	90
	High School . . . . .	204	0	10	29	60	105	3.3	81
14. The resources of the community (for example, institutions, organizations, agencies, personnel) and how they may be utilized to give vitality to learning activities.	College . . . . .	21	0	0	4	6	11	3.3	80
	High School . . . . .	196	1	8	28	82	77	3.2	81
15. The occupational opportunities of the immediate and wider community and their bearing upon the program of the school and the needs and interests of the students.	College . . . . .	20	0	0	6	7	7	3.1	70
	High School . . . . .	197	1	6	22	76	92	3.3	85
16. The techniques of co-operative planning and working with colleagues and community groups and agencies in order to bring about changes in the curriculum.	College . . . . .	21	0	0	3	6	12	3.0	86
	High School . . . . .	196	1	8	38	85	64	3.0	75
B. Planning, guiding, and evaluating learning activities in the classroom:	College . . . . .	21	0	0	1	3	17	3.8	95
	High School . . . . .	198	0	5	12	35	46	3.6	91
1. The basic ideals and values of democratic living and techniques for giving them continuous emphasis in all of the learning activities.	College . . . . .	21	0	0	1	2	18	3.8	95
	High School . . . . .	198	0	5	17	64	112	3.4	90
2. The significance of helping students to clarify their systems of values, the techniques involved, and how to organize learning activities directed toward this end.	College . . . . .	21	0	0	1	5	15	3.7	95
	High School . . . . .	195	0	3	22	72	98	3.4	87
3. The nature of scientific method (reflective thinking), its use in the classroom and in dealing with personal and school problems.	College . . . . .	21	0	0	1	5	15	3.7	95
	High School . . . . .	181	0	7	15	56	107	3.4	88
4. How to organize learning activities in such a way as to remove the "blocks" to effective learning.	College . . . . .	21	0	0	1	10	10	3.4	95
	High School . . . . .	194	0	4	17	67	106	3.4	89
5. The process of growth and maturation in adolescence, and how to plan and develop learning activities appropriate to each level of development.	College . . . . .	21	0	0	1	7	13	3.6	95
	High School . . . . .	199	0	2	19	49	129	3.5	89
6. How to organize learning activities so as to provide for individual differences among students.	College . . . . .	20	0	1	1	9	9	3.3	80
	High School . . . . .	197	0	6	18	72	101	3.4	88
7. The technique of organizing group and individual learning activities so as to make provision for problem cases, handicapped students, delinquents, and the like.	College . . . . .	21	0	0	0	0	0	3.4	95
	High School . . . . .	194	0	4	17	67	106	3.4	89

\* Percentage which the two highest ratings (3 and 4) are of all the ratings given the generalization by members of each group.

TABLE I [Continued]

GENERALIZATIONS	PERSONS RATING		RATING DISTRIBUTION							AVERAGE RATING	PER CENT*
	Position	Number	0	1	2	3	4				
8. How to draw upon the major fields of knowledge in helping youth to meet their needs and solve their problems.	College . . . . .	21	0	0	2	10	9	3.3	94		
	High School . . . . .	198	0	2	25	94	77	3.2	86		
9. How to utilize the library in planning and developing learning activities; how to secure and utilize inexpensive and free materials in instruction; how to select, utilize, and file resource materials.	High School . . . . .	21	0	0	3	9	9	3.3	86		
	College . . . . .	200	0	4	19	78	99	3.4	83		
10. How to build resource and learning units, to utilize them in the classroom, and to evaluate their effectiveness.	High School . . . . .	21	0	0	1	10	10	3.4	95		
	College . . . . .	195	1	4	41	69	80	3.1	76		
11. Techniques of organizing learning activities (for example, recitation, unit teaching, drill) and how and when to utilize them.	College . . . . .	19	0	0	3	6	10	2.9	84		
	High School . . . . .	193	0	1	11	40	141	3.7	94		
12. The selection and proper use of textbooks, reference books, and other instructional materials.	College . . . . .	21	0	2	3	10	6	3.0	76		
	High School . . . . .	195	0	3	11	57	124	3.5	92		
13. The concept of continuous evaluation, and how to evaluate learning activities in terms of the purposes of democratic education.	College . . . . .	21	0	0	1	4	16	3.8	95		
	High School . . . . .	198	1	6	27	74	90	3.1	71		
14. Audio-visual aids, their place in the classroom, and how to use and evaluate them.	College . . . . .	21	0	0	3	11	7	3.2	86		
	High School . . . . .	200	0	8	33	84	75	3.1	71		
15. Ways of improving human relations in the classroom, and the techniques for evaluating progress.	College . . . . .	21	0	0	0	5	16	3.8	100		
	High School . . . . .	196	0	5	14	67	110	3.4	90		
16. The basic needs, problems, and interests of adolescents and the techniques for discovering and utilizing them in planning and carrying out learning activities.	College . . . . .	21	0	0	0	5	16	3.8	100		
	High School . . . . .	200	0	2	17	56	125	3.5	90		
17. How to relate the concerns of youth to the larger social setting.	College . . . . .	20	0	0	1	10	9	3.4	95		
	High School . . . . .	188	0	5	19	80	84	3.2	87		
18. How to extend the interests of students and to stimulate new ones.	College . . . . .	21	0	1	12	8	3.3	95	90		
	High School . . . . .	197	1	2	15	60	119	3.4	90		
19. The techniques of teacher-student planning, and ways of carrying them into effect and of evaluating them co-operatively.	College . . . . .	20	0	0	5	10	3.2	75	75		
	High School . . . . .	195	1	9	46	92	47	2.9	71		
20. The techniques of conducting field trips and community surveys, and how to relate them to the work of the classroom.	College . . . . .	21	0	1	5	10	5	2.9	75		
	High School . . . . .	196	2	14	48	82	50	2.8	67		
21. The techniques of democratic discussion and how to evaluate the effectiveness of discussion.	College . . . . .	21	0	0	2	8	11	3.4	90		
	High School . . . . .	197	0	4	19	85	89	3.3	88		
22. The nature and significance of controversial issues and the techniques for dealing with them in the classroom.	College . . . . .	20	0	0	2	7	11	3.4	90		
	High School . . . . .	196	0	7	11	71	87	3.7	81		

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TABLE I [Continued]

GENERALIZATIONS	PERSONS RATING		RATING DISTRIBUTION				AVERAGE RATING	PER CENT*	
	Position	Number	0	1	2	3			4
23. The techniques involved in group problem solving and group action.	College . . . . .	21	0	0	0	11	10	3.5	100
24. The rôle of dramatization in learning and the techniques for utilizing it in the classroom.	High School . . . . .	192	2	6	43	86	55	3.0	73
25. Techniques of indirect and direct school control (interest, motivation, types of disciplinary action, etc.) and the relation of school control to effective learning.	College . . . . .	21	0	1	6	7	7	3.0	67
26. The rôle of guidance and counseling in relation to classroom activities, and the techniques of individual and group guidance.	High School . . . . .	196	0	3	29	60	104	3.3	84
27. How to organize learning activities to help youth to make wise vocational choices.	College . . . . .	20	0	0	3	7	10	3.3	85
	High School . . . . .	195	1	5	20	70	99	3.3	87
	College . . . . .	21	0	0	6	8	7	2.7	71
	High School . . . . .	130	0	2	12	49	67	3.3	89
C. Extra-class instructional activities and responsibilities:									
1. How to participate effectively in community groups and organizations, and to relate these activities to the program of the school.	College . . . . .	21	0	1	4	10	6	3.0	80
2. How to organize and direct adult-education groups in the area or areas of the teacher's specialization.	High School . . . . .	198	2	14	51	73	58	2.9	66
3. The values of the various types of student activities, such as student government, assemblies, publications, honor societies, and how to organize and direct them.	College . . . . .	21	1	3	11	3	3	2.2	28
	High School . . . . .	199	9	41	64	64	21	2.2	43
4. How to direct one or more areas of student activities (for example, building model airplanes, organizing tropical fish clubs, forums, photography clubs).	College . . . . .	21	0	0	9	8	4	2.8	57
	High School . . . . .	201	0	8	53	84	56	2.9	69
5. How to participate in and direct social activities (social dancing, parties, clubs, and the like).	College . . . . .	21	0	2	7	9	3	2.6	57
	High School . . . . .	197	1	24	42	83	47	2.8	66
6. How to participate in and direct playground activities (sports, games, and the like).	College . . . . .	20	0	2	9	6	3	2.5	45
	High School . . . . .	195	3	30	53	76	33	2.5	56
7. How to recognize and deal with relatively simple problems involving physical and mental health (for example, symptoms of common ailments, poor posture, physical defects, emotional disturbances, frustration and aggression, normality, need for love and affection, assurance, achievement).	College . . . . .	20	0	5	9	4	2	2.2	50
	High School . . . . .	196	15	36	70	58	17	2.1	38
8. How the school library is organized, and how to help students to use it effectively.	College . . . . .	21	0	0	4	8	9	3.2	86
	High School . . . . .	196	1	2	18	61	114	3.5	89
	College . . . . .	21	0	0	6	6	9	3.1	70
	High School . . . . .	197	1	5	24	72	95	3.3	85

1. Both groups regard the possession of a democratic philosophy (A-1) as very important but do not prize highly an understanding of competing philosophies of secondary education (A-2) and their implications for the curriculum.
2. Both groups tend to minimize the value of a knowledge of the experimental programs of the leading schools (A-11).
3. Neither group seems to place a high value upon working knowledge in the field of curriculum development (A-7, 8, 9, 10).
4. Both groups tend to value highly knowledge in the field of human development and learning (B-4, 5, 6, 7, 16, 18; C-8).
5. Both groups tend to rate highly most generalizations pertaining to classroom methods (B-1, 2, 3, 9, 21).
6. Both groups tend to minimize the importance of knowledge in the field of so-called extra-curricular activities (C-3, 4, 5, 6).
7. Both groups tend to give a relatively low rating to techniques pertaining to teacher-student planning (B-19), but college teachers regard a knowledge of such techniques as slightly more valuable than do high-school teachers.
8. A knowledge of organizing and directing adult-education groups is not considered to be of great importance by either group (C-2).
9. Dramatization (psycho-drama, socio-drama, and so on, B-24) is regarded by both groups as having relatively little value.

Second, there are several exceptions to the general conclusion that college and high-school teachers agree on the working knowledge which every high-school teacher should possess.

1. High-school teachers regard a knowledge of the leaders in the field of secondary education and their contribution to the school program (A-12) as of greater importance than do college teachers.
2. Participation in community groups and relating such activities to the school program (C-1) is not considered to be very important, particularly by the high-school teachers.
3. A working knowledge of the techniques of group problem solving and group action (B-23) is regarded as more valuable by the college teachers than by the high-school teachers.
4. High-school teachers value more highly than do college teachers, a knowledge of the techniques of school control (B-25).

Upon the basis of the study, very few of the generalizations included in the check list should be eliminated from the teacher-education programs. However, the following should be carefully scrutinized: A-2, 3, 4, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12; B-14; C-2, 3, 4, 5, and 6.

[Continued on page 112]

## Point of View and Quality of Thought in Attitude Measurement

By IRVING ROBBINS

**A**N INVESTIGATION to determine the relationship which exists between a person's first, second, and third choices of opinions about certain social problems and his ability to be objective and accurate in the selection of reasons for those opinions was carried on at the University of Cincinnati. More specifically, the problem may be broken down into two aspects: Does an individual tend to select more agreement responses for an opinion he is most partial to than for an opinion with which he is in disagreement? Is there any difference in the accuracy with which a person selects reasons for an opinion to which he is partial and for an opinion he does not hold?

Forty Seniors enrolled in a course in evaluation and measurement at the University of Cincinnati were used in making this study. These students were given about one half-hour's direction in how to take the test used, after which they took the test home with them and spent from one to three hours in answering all of the questions. Full co-operation was secured from the members of the group because they knew they were engaged in an anonymous study the results of which would be made known to them upon its completion.

**T**HE test was divided into two parts, Form A and Form B, each dealing with five social problems. This separation does not imply comparability of form or alternate forms. It was an arbitrary grouping of problems to prevent persons taking the test from getting too tired. These tests were constructed in 1939 by members of the Evaluation of School Broadcasts Staff, Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University. The problems in Form A are concerned with housing, war, race, unions, and agriculture. The problems in Form B deal with freedom of speech, poverty, foreign trade, government and business, and refugees.

Each problem is so set up that three opinions are presented. In general, the opinions were designed to sample the approach of persons who believe in government intervention, in private enterprise, or in some combination of both. For instance, in the



problem of housing the statement is made, "What should be done about the housing problem?" Opinion A is worded, "The Federal Government should provide decent housing for the millions of families now living in shacks and tenements." Opinion B states that "The Federal Government should encourage private enterprise to build houses by guaranteeing mortgages, by making loans to home owners, and by undertaking slum-clearance projects." The third opinion, Opinion C, is worded, "The Federal Government should not use public funds to build houses, but should encourage private businessmen to finance and develop housing projects."

The student first indicates on his answer sheet the opinion which corresponds most closely to his own. He then indicates the opinion which is his second choice, or the choice next closest to his own opinion. Finally, he indicates the opinion which is his third choice. This selection of opinions is carried out for each of the ten social problems.

Under each of the three opinions there are ten supporting reasons. The individual is asked to indicate the reasons which he considers best support his first opinion by encircling "A" (agree) on his separate answer sheet. If he should feel that the reasons do not support his opinion or if he is uncertain, he is instructed to encircle either "D" (disagree) or "U" (uncertain). In this fashion an individual makes ten responses for his first opinion. The test is constructed so that there are four good reasons and six poor ones. An illustration of a good reason for Opinion A is: "In the United States the Federal Government is the only agency large enough to solve the housing problem." An illustration of each of the three different types of poor reasoning follows:

An argument from false authority—

Certain liberal weekly newspapers recognize the necessity of government housing.

An argument of overgeneralization—

The success of government housing in Europe is proof that it will be successful in America.

An illustration of a stereotype—

The rights of all the people will eventually triumph over the privileges of the few.

The individual, after responding to these ten reasons for his first opinion, similarly responds to reasons in turn for his second



and his third opinions. In this fashion the structure of the test permits one to analyze the results of its administration in terms at least of the two purposes already mentioned.

No systematic attempt beyond a personal interview was made to investigate the validity of the test for this sample. In a previous study, however, the investigator had found the test quite valid for his purposes. As for reliability, the odd-even reliability (corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula) for Form A is .93; and for Form B, .88. The intercorrelation of the two tests for the 40 cases is .88. The decrease in reliability

TABLE I

A COMPARISON OF MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR FORTY COLLEGE STUDENTS ON FIRST, SECOND, AND THIRD OPINIONS ON FORMS A AND B, EXERCISES ON SOCIAL PROBLEMS, FOR AGREE, UNCERTAIN, DISAGREE, AND CORRECT RESPONSES

OPINION	AGREE		UNCERTAIN		DISAGREE		CORRECT	
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Form A								
First	27.65	6.61	8.78	6.45	13.55	8.34	28.83	6.79
Second	22.98	5.51	9.15	7.26	17.88	7.58	31.38	6.37
Third	16.28	5.58	9.33	7.09	24.35	7.53	31.40	6.47
Form B								
First	26.43	7.34	9.08	6.80	14.38	8.39	27.68	6.04
Second	22.53	6.78	10.83	7.99	16.65	8.48	28.73	5.95
Third	19.30	6.63	9.35	7.79	21.30	8.84	29.23	6.54

in Form B may be attributed to the fatigue factor, which was mentioned by most of the students.

THE responses of each student for the ten social problems were tabulated in terms of the number of "Agree's" encircled for the first opinion, second opinion, and third opinion. A similar tabulation was made for the number of "Uncertain's," "Disagree's," and the number of correct responses. It will be recalled that a correct response is one in which an individual agrees with a proposition for a good reason or disagrees with or is uncertain about one for a poor reason.

A comparison of the means and standard deviations for the 40 college students on their first, second, and third opinions on

Form A for "Agree," "Uncertain," "Disagree," and correct response is presented in Table I. As the table indicates, the mean number of "Agree" responses for the individual's first opinion is 27.65, for his second opinion 22.98, and for his third opinion 16.28. For all three opinions it will be noticed that the differences among standard deviations are statistically insignificant. Under correct response it will be observed in Table I that the mean number of correct responses for the first opinion is 28.83, for the second opinion 31.38, and for the third opinion 31.40.

TABLE II

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES AMONG MEANS ON FORMS A AND B, EXERCISES ON SOCIAL PROBLEMS, FOR AGREE RESPONSES OF FORTY COLLEGE STUDENTS

Variable	Form	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	<i>t</i> *
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
First vs. second Agree...	A	27.65	6.61	22.98	5.51	3.38*
	B	26.43	7.34	22.53	6.78	2.43†
First vs. third Agree...	A	27.65	6.61	16.28	5.58	8.18*
	B	26.43	7.34	19.30	6.63	4.51*
Second vs. third Agree...	A	22.98	5.51	16.28	5.58	5.32*
	B	22.53	6.78	19.30	6.63	2.13†

\* A "*t*" of 2.71 is significant at .01 level.

† 2.02 at the .05 level.

An analysis of the means and standard deviations for 40 college students on first, second, and third opinions on Form B for "Agree," "Uncertain," "Disagree," and correct response reveals a similar pattern. The figures are given in the lower part of Table I. The reader will note that the mean number of "Agree's" for the first opinion is 26.43, for the second opinion 22.53, and for the third opinion 19.30. Similarly, under the "Correct" column the mean number of correct responses for the first opinion is 27.68, for the second opinion 28.73, and for the third opinion 29.23. In all cases for both Forms A and B the standard deviations do not differ from each other statistically.

An analysis of the mean differences revealed in Form A and Form B is presented in Table II. One can see that the mean differences in all cases are statistically significant (*see* Column 7). The consistent trend from higher to lower means on "Agree" responses for first, second, and third opinions points to a pattern of gullibility which must be brought to the attention of teachers

and students. The tendency to agree with statements reinforcing one's opinion and to disagree with those favoring an opposed opinion points to the inability of these students to reason objectively and accurately.

**I**N SUMMARY, the conclusions one may draw from this small sample and for this study seem to be as follows: First, individuals tend to select more "Agree" responses in their choices of what they consider good reasons in their first opinion than in their second and third opinions. Conversely, the farther an opinion is from their own, the more individuals tend to select "Disagree" responses. Second, there does not seem to be any significant difference for this group on the "Uncertain" and "Correct" responses. In other words, for one's first and third opinions one tends to select a similar number of correct responses. This is probably due to the balancing action of lack of objectivity caused by feelings of agreeableness for one's first opinion and feelings of disagreeableness for one's third opinion.

The import of this limited study seems to be that teachers who are interested in the opinions and the reasoning of their students should be informed of the need for teaching them to be more objective in reasoning not only about a point of view which they favor but also about one with which they disagree. There were some exceptional individuals in the study who were able to reason objectively and at a high level in their third as well as in their first opinions. It is a problem of education, therefore, to attempt to encourage students to be more objective about their emotional and intellectual biases so that they may reason more logically about their own opinions as well as about those of others.

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## EDITORIAL COMMENT

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### A Workshop on Economic Education

**T**HE workshop on "Problems of Economic Education in the Public Schools of the United States," announced by the School of Education of New York University, is one of the most promising summer projects that has come to our attention. It is promising, in the first place, because of the field with which it deals. As the economic problems of the world become more complex and more closely related to the concerns of government, there is increasing need for better economic education of the citizenry. The schools are not doing an adequate job in this field and need all the help they can get.

The workshop is promising, in the second place, because of its program. Its members will study, first, "the nature of the American social-economic system," and second, "the best current practices and materials in the field of economic education in our public secondary schools and . . . the supplementation and improvement of these programs and materials." Among the questions and problems announced for study are these:

What do we have to work with, including natural resources, human resources and skills, technological resources, and capital resources?

How does our economic system work in practice? What are the organizing forces; what motivates or energizes it; what strengths and advantages does it demonstrate; and what limitations and failures are evidenced?

What is expected of our economic system? What levels of employment and national output; what services for health, recreation, and education; what provision for unemployment and old-age security? Can the cyclical fluctuations in employment and output be modified?

What improvements have been proposed, including fiscal, monetary, and tax remedies; corrections with respect to competition in domestic and foreign trade; remedies to correct specific inequities; and public enterprise and control?

In what direction should economic education be projected? What is the current status of economic education; what planning and reorganization are needed; what instructional materials are available; what materials are needed; and how should these materials be produced?

This program avoids one of the pitfalls that beset educational workshops and similar enterprises: overemphasis on

materials and procedures for teaching to the neglect of studying the appropriate subject-matter. We need much more attention on the part of school people to what used to be called "professionalized subject-matter"; we are most effective in our pedagogical enterprises when we deal with subject-matter and its use in the schools in the closest possible relation to each other. This is one of the best ways to ensure that, on the one hand, the subject-matter has practical rather than merely academic value, and that, on the other hand, our discussion of teaching aims and procedures does not degenerate into vague theorizing clothed in jargon.

Neglect of subject-matter in the program of this workshop would have been particularly unfortunate, since the members will not be teachers of economics and other social studies but school administrators and curriculum specialists who probably have no special knowledge in the field. However, it is clear from the problems listed for consideration and the character of the persons announced as staff members and consultants that subject-matter will not be neglected, that it will be functional rather than academic, and that there will be competent leadership for its study.

This workshop is promising, in the third place, because it will be in session long enough to do a real job in the complex and important field in which it is to work. Seventy persons, working intensively for four weeks, should be able to make an important contribution to their own education and, through their report, to the education of others.

The members of the workshop have an unusual opportunity; they should produce results worthy of it.

R. H. E.

### Educational Conference and Workshop

**L**EADERSHIP in education will be the theme of the Educational Conference and Workshop, designed for school administrators on all levels, to be conducted at Ohio State University this summer. This three-weeks Workshop, aimed at promoting the advancement of professional leadership in public education, will be in session July 12 to 30, from 9 A.M. to 4 P.M., except on Saturdays.

The Educational Conference for school administrators, teachers, board members, school-business officials, graduate stu-

dents, and others, will take place July 13-14, during which time the Workshop will not be in session. No academic credit will be given for attendance at the Conference only, but Workshop participants, who will be required to register for Education 626, will be entitled to four quarter-hours of graduate or undergraduate credit.

The Conference will include addresses by two outstanding educators: Herold C. Hunt, general superintendent, Chicago public schools, and Alonzo G. Grace, state commissioner of education, Connecticut. Each address will be followed by a discussion period which will provide an opportunity for Workshop members to raise questions regarding problems on which they will be working in the subsequent Workshop sessions.

Staff members for the Workshop are W. R. Flesher, head of the Evaluation Division in the Bureau of Educational Research at Ohio State University, who will direct the Workshop; M. R. Sumption, head of the Division of School Organization and Administration, Bureau of Research and Service, University of Illinois, general consultant; visiting consultants who will deal with specific Workshop problems; and various staff members of the Ohio State University College of Education.

Advance registration is recommended for both the Conference and the Workshop. The fee for the Workshop will total \$25 (\$15 for tuition and \$10 for laboratory fee). The Conference registration fee will be \$1, and checks in payment of the Conference fee should be made payable to W. R. Flesher, 200 Arps Hall, Ohio State University, Columbus 10, who will provide detailed information concerning both the Conference and the Workshop.

The Conference and the Workshop will be sponsored by the Ohio State College of Education in co-operation with the State Department of Education, the Ohio Educational Association, the Ohio County Superintendents Association, the Ohio Department of Elementary School Principals, the Ohio Exempted Village Superintendents Association, the Ohio School Principals Association, and the Ohio Superintendents Association.

It will be necessary for Workshop and Conference members to arrange for room and board, but an effort will be made by those in charge of the Workshop to obtain blocks of rooms in certain dormitories for the use of the members.

YESIPOV, B. P., AND GONCHAROV, N. K. translated by George S. Counts and Nucia P. Lodge. "*I Want To Be Like Stalin.*" New York: John Day Company, 1947. 150 pp.

This little volume was written primarily to help the average citizen gain insight into the aims and purposes of the Soviet Union. One may hope it is widely read by this group of Americans. Yet it ought to be read equally widely by those to whom it is not primarily addressed, the educators. All of us need to know what place in the sun the Russians have marked off for themselves; but, in particular, those responsible for the character of democratic education need to gain a feeling for the dynamic quality of the educative process in Russia, where direction is clear and purpose unswerving.

What is here presented is a translation of the section dealing with moral education in a textbook on *Pedagogy*,<sup>1</sup> published in 1946, and written by two Soviet educators, B. P. Yesipov and N. K. Goncharov. In addition, George Counts, long a student of Russia and a friend of the Russian people, states in an introduction his reasons for believing that the *Pedagogy*, serving as it does to glorify the going government and its leader, Stalin, is a "deadly earnest" effort to remake "the mind of the younger generation of the vast population of all nationalities dwelling within the borders of the Union" (page 20).

The reader will understand the appropriateness of the title as soon as he dips into the pages (116 out of a total of 150) that present the translation. The *Pedagogy* is addressed to Russians, to those who will teach in elementary schools. Its emphases, therefore, are for home consumption, and it is in this connection that the reader must note, perhaps with horror, the identification of Stalin with all that is good and wonderful, with all the hopes and aspirations of the people. No other living Russian is brought to the attention of the prospective teachers. As a consequence, this centering of loyalty for the school children is something with which the world must reckon.

A few quotations (and their counterparts might be selected from almost any page) ought to convince the reader that it is his obligation in this tense moment of time to study the total content.

We must make every school child aware of the grandeur of our struggle and our victories; we must show him the cost of these great successes in labor and blood; we must tell him how the great people of our epoch—Lenin, Stalin, and their companions in arms—organized the workers in the struggle for a new and happy life (page 37).

. . . moral education is an education which, in the light of the communistic ideal, shapes all the actions, all the habits, and the entire conduct of a person, determining his attitude toward people, toward his Motherland, toward labor, and toward public property (page 40).

A morally educated individual . . . is one who in his conduct subordinates his own interests to the service of his Motherland and his people (page 42).

Pupils must come to know that in our Soviet country the interests of the people are inseparable from the interests of their government . . . the natural attachment to the

<sup>1</sup> Counts and Lodge report that the *Pedagogy* is more than 200,000 words in length.



native country is strengthened by pride in one's socialist Motherland, in the Bolshevik Party, in the leader of the workers of the entire world—Comrade Stalin. It is a great honor to any individual to be a citizen of and to defend such a fatherland (page 58).

In all educational work devoted to the preparation of future citizens to defend the Motherland, it is necessary to remember that to vanquish the enemy is impossible without the most burning hatred of him. Passionate love of the Motherland breeds inevitably strong hatred of the enemy (page 70).

People who build a communist society must be devoted to the cause and be ready to defend it with all their strength and resources. They must be brave, courageous, honest, steadfast, and disciplined. They must hate their enemies, fear no difficulties, and overcome all obstacles. Such is the moral force of the new man, of the man of the new society (page 142).

The authors of this *Pedagogy* have fashioned a tool calculated to build "the new man" and "the new society." They are skilled in pedagogical principles. Moreover, what they do has the approval of those who have created what the translators term "the Soviet theocracy." We have reason to believe that the effort will be successful. It is well that we know what the purpose is.

H. GORDON HULLFISH

HANSEN, HAROLD A.; HERNDON, JOHN G.; AND LANGSDORF, WILLIAM B., editors. *Fighting for Freedom: Historic Documents*. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Company, 1947. x+502 pp.

This is a collection of documentary selections relating to the War of 1939-45, apparently prepared during or just after the war. All of the documents were available in complete form in those years. It is unfortunate that room was not made for the texts since available of agreements among the Allies, or between Germany and her several partners. Some of these seem more vital than the formal speeches of visiting dignitaries. The reviewer also regrets not seeing perhaps the most dramatic and significant part of Churchill's great speech on the German invasion of Russia, in which he spoke of his opposition to communism and of the British government's decision in terms more memorable than the eleven pages from two radio commentators. One reads, incidentally, the comment that "Churchill's forthright statement was significant for its effect on Russia" (page 156), and wonders what that means.

There are some fairly useful chronological tables and narrative introductions, but the introductions should have been checked more carefully for fact and expression. The bibliographical citations are incomplete.

Some introductions, as well as the selections of material, seem to reflect confusion of thought respecting Russian totalitarianism. Communism is "very like democracy in some of its basic assumptions" (page 3). Extracts from the Constitution of the U.S.S.R. are included in the section on "The Basic Assumptions of Democracy," as if that kind of window-dressing nullified the essential fact of dictatorship. In connection with Russia's declaration of war on Japan (and allegedly impressive victories in Manchuria), the editors are satisfied that "it would not be difficult to find adequate moral grounds for her breach of the Soviet-Japanese non-aggression pact . . . and the Soviet's international record makes it likely that she satisfied herself on this point" (page 355).



The volume will be useful to those who want a clothbound collection now, and it will arouse many memories. A less expensive and fuller selection may be had from the Carnegie Endowment (five volumes of *International Conciliation* for a dollar).

EARL S. POMEROY

THOMPSON, CHARLES, editor. *The Journal of Negro Education*. Washington, D. C.: Howard University Press, XVI (Fall, 1947).

No longer can the problem of the public education of a minority group be treated with indifference for it is becoming increasingly the testing point of democracy as a way of life. The *Journal of Negro Education* seeks to stimulate research and disseminate valid information relating to this problem, and in this it is performing a unique service. The Fall issue (1947) represents a sampling of a half-dozen significant areas of interest, with major critical analysis centering around the legal phases of segregation in the schools of Maryland. This study describes the painstaking progress by which the rights of the Negro in public education have been established through the courts, from the lowest to the highest. It is of particular importance in that it gives the pattern of the technique that is being used to assure educational equality throughout the nation, particularly in the South.

The *Journal* has other stimulating studies on subjects which have an indirect bearing upon this central theme of education of the Negro: The Nature of Race Relations: a Critique; the Negro Press; the Changed Political Thoughts of Negroes of the United States. And to give a wider perspective to the whole problem, from an international point of view, there is a critical study on Felix Eboué and Colonial Policy, as it relates to the question of democratic living.

The editor of the *Journal* is Charles Thompson, Dean of the Graduate School, Howard University. The contributors are men of training and insight whose combined efforts make the special issue of the *Journal* a significant contribution to educational thought.

J. ARNETT MITCHELL

BOWERS, HENRY. *Thinking for Yourself*. Toronto: J. M. Dent and Sons, 1946. xi+310 pp.

This interesting book on logic and "the elements of reasoning" is very easy to read. It is full of humorous and ingenious examples of various types of logical inconsistencies in verbal statements.

There is some question as to what the author of this book hopes to accomplish. He recommends "that there be introduced into the curriculum of the secondary school an obligatory subject with a name such as *Elements of Reasoning*" (page xi), and feels that this book would give "form and substance" to such a course. He appears to be interested in the use of logic as a form of propaganda analysis. This impression of the author's intent is reinforced by his implication that thinking consists of picking flaws and inconsistencies in statements made by other persons.

One finds in this book very little that would enable young people to cope with a situation that many have found to be very disillusioning: that through propaganda analysis they have been made the victims of another type of

propaganda technique, often more subtle and subversive than the propaganda used for analysis. The reviewer can find little in the author's proposal or in his book which would assist young people in reconciling themselves to the fact that the words and actions of the saviors of mankind may be full of contradictions, that those of mankind's betrayers may appear quite consistent, and that civilized living is normally a process of adjusting to human inconsistencies. If the logic of the heart is not always revealed in the logic of words, then it would seem that humane understanding must be founded on some experience more substantial than the critical examination of what other people say.

Although there appears to be ample room for doubting the adequacy of the program recommended by the author, nevertheless his book is recommended as an interesting and understandable introduction to the study of logic.

RALPH M. STOGDILL

BRADFORD, ELIZABETH. *Let's Talk about Children*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1947. x+167 pp.

This gay little book was compiled from talks which the author gave over radio station WCSH in Portland, Maine. It is written in an informal, chatty style. It has the atmosphere of friendly advice given by an older, more experienced mother to young mothers who are worried and distressed about their very young children.

The author states that the primary needs of the baby are food, sleep, and love. Many problem situations arise because of feelings of insecurity on the part of the young child. Too great emphasis on punishment may create these feelings.

There is a good discussion of fear, and of ways in which to help young children to overcome their fears. The negativism of age three and Johnny's habit of saying "no" also are analyzed.

The importance of setting a good example, of straightening out one's own personality, and of using the light, humorous touch is stressed in the recommendations for parents given by this author, who quite obviously herself enjoys parenthood.

This is pleasant and helpful reading for parents and teachers of nursery-age children.

AMALIE K. NELSON

STERNER, ALICE P. *Radio, Motion Picture, and Reading Interests: a Study of High School Pupils*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947. xii+102 pp. (Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 932).

Teachers of English and other high-school subjects, parents, and critics of the leisure activities of teen-agers would do well to read Miss Sterner's book. They will find that many of their pet ideas about "aural-minded," "print-minded," or "movie-conditioned" children are unfounded. In this well-documented study of seven out-of-school language activities of high-school pupils, the author found that pupils do not consistently favor a particular medium but follow three major interests—adventure, humor, and love. They choose indiscriminately among books, newspapers, magazines, comics, funny

books, radio, and motion pictures as these media satisfy their major interests. The most universal interest of all is adventure; next is humor; and third is love, an interest which is especially popular among girls.

Miss Sterner also compared the pupils' sex, age, grade, marks, intelligence, and socio-economic status with their interests and media choices. She found practically no relationship between these factors in adolescent life and interests and media. The only significant relationships found were that

girls are more likely than boys to read romantic magazines and to show interest in the love theme (page 30). . . . Boys see more movies and girls read more magazines. Brighter pupils of both sexes tend to read more books (pages 30, 31).

In general, however, the author found that

the teacher apparently has no genuine basis for grouping her pupils by media or interests. . . . All adolescents use these activities to a considerable degree. Adults may deprecate a medium for many reasons or from prejudice, but certainly they cannot look down upon these media because of the quality of the youth that use them (page 31).

Besides these broader relationships, the author also reports the specific findings on the activities of pupils in the various media. The most popular movies, radio programs, magazines, comic strips, and so on are listed and commented upon. An annotated bibliography of seventy previous studies on the leisure activities of high-school pupils makes this book even more valuable.

JEANNE S. CHALL

MURSELL, JAMES L. *Successful Teaching: Its Psychological Principles*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1946. xi+338 pp.

The author seeks to re-examine the concept of general method from a fresh point of view. Instead of using the customary treatment which involves discussions, philosophy, types of teaching, lesson planning, discipline, and the like, the author organizes his material around six basic principles dealing with context, focalization, socialization, individualization, sequence, and evaluation. The procedure is to state the principle, present the psychological data which support it, and illustrate it from actual teaching situations. Following each chapter dealing with a given principle is a chapter which sets up a "hierarchy showing degrees of excellence in management" of the principle. This hierarchy ranges from the simplest and worst possible use of the principle to the best possible application of it. Each of these applications is fully developed by the use of a wealth of concrete illustrative material.

Not the least valuable part of the book are the sections at the end of the chapters entitled, "Notes and References." Here the author discusses briefly the reference material he has used in the preparation of the chapter. Pertinent additional readings are also listed. This plan is much more desirable than the traditional practice of merely listing references.

The author neglects almost entirely the problems of philosophy, curricular organization, and administration. These omissions he explains as follows: "But after all, what is the use of the best curriculum, the most expert administration, the wisest philosophy, if teaching is so technically bad that it fails and potential learners simply do not learn?" (page ix). One might in turn ask Mr. Mursell: What is the value of technical efficiency in learning, if such learning is not directed toward ends that will give the school a vital rôle in the

progressive refinement of democratic living? Perhaps we shall still have to struggle to unify philosophy, curriculum, and method before we can really define "successful teaching."

HAROLD ALBERTY

SUTHERLAND, ETHEL. *One-Step Problem Patterns and Their Relation to Problem Solving in Arithmetic*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947. 170 pp. (Teachers College, Columbia University Contributions to Education, No. 925).

This is a study designed to secure information on three questions: first, How many different one-step problem patterns are there relating to each of the four fundamental operations? (A one-step problem is defined as a problem the solution to which is obtained by the single performance of one of the four fundamental operations.) Second, With what frequency do the one-step problem patterns appear in arithmetic textbooks? Third, What bearing do the answers of the first two questions have upon the teaching of problem solving in arithmetic?

The study was limited to analysis of four series of textbooks (16 books), selected on the basis of agreement with the content of a 1937 course of study used in an unspecified state. The analysis was made with care. Thirty-eight one-step patterns were found, with 13,498 repetitions. Multiplication patterns were found to receive disproportionately extensive treatment at the expense of division.

This study is not for the general reader. It should be of interest to the research worker and to textbook writers. Its greatest weakness seems to be the slight consideration given the rôle of creative thought in attacking problems and the importance of making problems "real" or significant to the child.

The most useful finding, for general educators, is that only nineteen of the thirty-eight patterns are represented in a widely sold achievement test covering Grades IV, V, and VI. Many teachers will say they had suspected that!

LOWRY W. HARDING

WOLFF, WERNER. *The Personality of the Preschool Child*. New York: Grune and Stratton, Inc., 1946. xvi+341 pp.

In this stimulating and thought-provoking account of experimental depth psychology applied at the pre-school level, Mr. Wolff describes the methods he used in observing, recording, and interpreting children's expressive movements. With a wealth of illustrative detail, he shows how a child's spontaneous actions, his speech, his bodily movements, his dramatic play, and his graphic expressions, when interpreted in the child's idiom, manifest personality trends and patterns. Children's art is viewed as personal projection rather than imitation, and techniques are given for studying and interpreting drawings as significant expressions of the child's personality.

Mr. Wolff analyzes the basic structural differences between the child and the adult and points out the fallacy of judging child behavior by adult standards. He sees education as the bridge between the two worlds of child and adult, and proposes a "dynamic education" the goal of which is the development of "the highest sense of relationships" (page 287). He also emphasizes the unity of personality and the need for a variety of approaches in analyzing

and interpreting personality. He says: "Our study of expressive movements, combined with the Rohrschach study of projected imaginings, and related to an analytical study of motivations and to behavioristic observation of activities, promises to give us a full picture of the personality of the preschool child" (page 239).

The student of child development will find in this book many challenging ideas and suggestions for further study and application.

CECILE SWALES

GRUHN, WILLIAM T., AND DOUGLASS, HARL R. *The Modern Junior High School*. New York: Ronald Press Company, 1947. viii+492 pp.

In the Preface of *The Modern Junior High School*, the authors have stated three purposes for writing the book: [first], "to give an adequate statement of the history, philosophy, and functions of the junior high school; [second], to reveal prevailing nation-wide practices in its educational program; and [third], to suggest and describe improved programs and procedures not yet common in the typical school" (page iii).

The book is divided into five parts: Origin and Functions of the Junior High School, The Instructional Program, Guidance and Extra-class Activities, Organization and Administration, and Evaluation and Improvement. This organization is comprehensive enough to include almost all of the issues, problems, and questions confronting educators as they deal with the modern junior high school. The part dealing with the origin and functions of the junior high school is particularly well written and should be worth-while reading for all college students in secondary education and teachers in the field. Administrators and teachers will probably be interested in the last section, which deals with the junior high school of tomorrow. Although not treated as fully as other sections, it contains thirty-one suggestions and recommendations made by the authors which should be stimulating and thought-provoking for administrators and schools staffs responsible for the continued growth and reorganization of the junior high school.

Gruhn and Douglass have derived much of their data from a check-list survey of curriculum practices in 519 three-year junior high schools in all sections of the nation. These data and their interpretation by the authors are very helpful to the reader when combined with other research information included in the book. While it might not have been the intention of the authors to minimize the importance of adolescent psychology and understanding of child growth and development, it is evident that these particular areas of educational understanding are underemphasized. More attention to them would have given greater meaning to many sections of the work.

This book meets a real need in the field of educational literature and is especially adapted to the work of college students, teachers in service, and administrators planning in-service training programs.

HUGH LAUGHLIN

GESELL, ARNOLD, AND ILG, FRANCES L., in collaboration with LOUISE BATES AMES AND GLENNA E. BULLIS. *The Child from Five to Ten*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1946. xii+475 pp.

This is a companion volume to the earlier one by the same authors, *Infant and Child in the Culture of Today*. The present volume follows the

development of children through the early school years. The developmental picture is accompanied by suggestions for guiding the growing child to wholesome living and useful citizenship.

The organization of the material in this book is particularly fortunate. The "behavior profile" for each year of the child's growth follows the pattern set by the earlier volume. The guidance suggestions for parents and others dealing with children fall into the following areas: motor characteristics, personal hygiene, emotions, fears and dreams, self and sex, interpersonal relations, play and pastimes, school life, ethical sense, and philosophic outlook. In each area the guidance suggestions are followed by a descriptive analysis of the typical reactions of children for each year of growth.

The children who were observed for these studies were the same ones used for the studies reported in the earlier book. Most of the children were studied in the Yale Clinic. In addition, some observations were made in the New Canaan, Connecticut, Country School. Annual follow-up observations were made of the same children as they grew from five to ten years of age.

The premise underlying the suggestions for the training of children is that the child's behavior is influenced by his stage of maturity. The authors contend that the developmental approach to the problems of the child's conduct will result in more satisfying relations between adults and children. The adult must keep an eye on himself and not demand from the child conduct for which he is not yet ready. The long-range goal in disciplinary situations should be the child's mental health. ". . . We should think more in terms of emotional equilibrium, and less in the gloomier terms of expiatory punishment" (page 411).

A careful study of this book by adults who deal with children will result most assuredly in more happily adjusted and more intelligently guided children. In the opinion of this reviewer this book should be "must" reading for teachers of the elementary-school grades, as well as for parents of children aged five to ten.

AMALIE K. NELSON

## Working Knowledge Needed by the High-School Teacher

[Continued from page 96]

It is hoped that the study may be of value to teacher-education institutions in determining the factors of professional competency important to the prospective teacher, and to high-school faculties in planning in-service programs. The writer believes that the technique used in this study, with certain obvious refinements, may be helpful in establishing criteria for evaluating programs of teacher education.

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